

JOURNAL of APPLIED SOCIOLOGY

VOLUME
VIII

JULY-AUGUST

YEARLY SUBSCRIPTION, \$2.00

SINGLE COPIES, 10 CENTS

PUBLISHED BI-MONTHLY BY THE SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA SOCIETY FOR APPLIED SOCIOLOGY
AND UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA, 1257 UNIVERSITY BLVD., LOS ANGELES, CALIF.

Index to Volume VIII	323
Social Work and Industry	325
ARTHUR J. TODD	
The Concept of Social Distance	326
ROBERT E. PARK	
The Measurement of Social Attitudes	340
WILLIS W. CLARK	
Teaching of Scientific Thinking to Social Science Students	345
EDWIN L. CLARKE	
Standards for Social Welfare Agencies in Training Centers	359
OPAL KARTH	
The Mexican Casual Problem in the Southwest	365
EDWIN F. BAMFORD	
Will Democracy Survive?	372
EMORY S. BOGARDUS	
Book Notes	377
Rural Social Problems: Galpin	
Elements of Social Science: Fairchild	
Prisons and Community Service: Osherson	
Social Politics in the United States: Hooton	
Living English for New Americans: Low and Pugh	
And eleven other book reviews	
Periodical Notes	382
Round Table Notes	384

an
re
w
C
ju

it
g
P
a
n
u
c
h
v
s
s
c
j

SOCIAL WORK AND INDUSTRY

ARTHUR J. TODD

*Professor of Sociology, Northwestern University
and*

Director of Industrial Relations, B. Kuppenheimer & Co., Inc., Chicago

AT THE very outset, we may frankly confess that there are two rather diametrically opposed opinions as to the relation of social work and industry. The first of these was expressed in a report of the Committee on Community Cooperation of the American Management Association just published. The Committee says:

"Industry is an integral part of the community—not apart from it, but a part of it. Their destinies are tied up together . . . Progressive industrial leaders feel a responsibility towards their employees and are anxious to see them prosper. But an adequate wage alone will not bring this about. It is the wisdom with which the money is spent that tells the story. If the funds of the workers are used up on account of sickness that can be avoided and by other causes that can be eliminated through education and through the help of progressive social forces in an enlightened community, high wages will do little good. Industry is, therefore, interested and should feel responsibility for seeing that the community does its share in building up its citizens. This means effective functioning of the governmental agencies, health department, schools, police department, courts, recreation departments, etc., and the support of private social agencies, such as Community Chest Associations, that supplement the work of the public departments. . . . No one knows better than personnel directors that the efficiency and productiveness of workers depend upon their physical and mental condition, which in turn is the result of their environment, of the workers' home life. . . . Records of the welfare departments of industrial establishments are filled with cases of employees overwhelmed and

submerged by sickness, and the boundary between self-support and poverty crossed."

The other point of view was expressed in an address by the head of one of the greatest industrial organizations in the United States, in the course of an address on the "Problems of a Manufacturer." He said:

"It has been the habit of certain people to go about among the workers in our different mills, in an attempt to excite in them a feeling that they were unjustly treated. There are two classes of people who have indulged in this practice. There are the social workers and philanthropists who act from a sincere desire to better the conditions of the worker, and are really anxious to help. They are well meaning people, and there can be no doubt that in some, perhaps many cases, grievances really exist—the very grievances which we are trying to remedy. Of these people, I make no complaint or criticism. The purposes which they attempt to achieve are praiseworthy, but I venture to think that they might accomplish more in cooperation with the management than in stirring up feeling against it. Of the other class, nothing good can be said. Their motives, I do not believe are unselfish, nor is what they do helpful or beneficial to the workers. Many of them are vicious and agitate merely to get the money which they extract from the workers by way of assessments. They are busy sowing seeds of unrest and discontent among the workers, not only of our own mills, but throughout the country, in order to create and maintain a dissatisfaction with our industrial and political institutions. They are of the class called "Reds," who carry in their minds a well-defined purpose to overthrow our Government and industrial system and apparently propose to use the great laboring classes as a cat's paw to accomplish their ends."

The first of these quotations accepts the point of view that the spirit and method of social work are unescapable in progressive industry. The second frankly takes the stand that business is business and has nothing to learn from half-baked social meddlers or ideologists.

As usually happens, there is an element of truth in both

these points of view. It is true that business and industry have, at times, suffered from the ill-thought-out projects and ill-timed, ill-advised interference from the outside by people, some of them social workers, who have tried to reform industry by legislation or by more direct methods. On the other hand, industry has been compelled at times to reorder itself according to suggestions and even laws, promoted by social idealists and social workers. Industry also has frequently learned to respect and to profit by those suggestions and laws, even though at the beginning it was bitterly opposed to them. I need only cite such outstanding examples as workmen's compensation and child labor laws.

To no small degree both workmen's compensation legislation and the movement for the eight hour day have come out of the efforts of social workers. This is particularly true of the former, which to a certain extent, crystallizes the experience of social agencies in trying to handle from the standpoint of philanthropy and with very limited resources the problems of industrial accident, fatal or non-fatal. It would be difficult to find now a really broad-gauge employer who does not testify to his belief in a workmen's compensation law properly administered. The additional charge to industry is so slight that it can be borne without difficulty. The increased safety of factories is an element of relief to the manufacturer himself, for it is obvious that no man in his right mind enjoys the prospect of the experience of repeated serious accidents in his plant. The elimination of this personal sense of worry might easily be considered as worth the whole system of compensation laws. The same might be said of relief from the expense and suspense of court litigation over accident claims. But even more important is the by-product of installing nursing, sanitation, and accident-prevention measures.

For instance, most modern, high grade plants have a Health and Safety Department which not only looks after accidents but looks after the general health of the employees. This phase of industrial management undoubtedly reduces absenteeism and tardiness and therefore promotes production and in the long run may be treated in terms of industrial profits.

The same argument will probably come out eventually with regard to the eight hour day, although this measure almost universally urged by social workers has not yet had the full time to register its industrial effects.

In the field of minimum wage agitation and legislation, the case is still more tenuous. This principle has not yet been fully accepted by business and industrial leaders; that is to say, it has not been accepted as a legislative principle, although as a matter of fact in recent times most industries following simply the law of supply and demand, or following arrangements with organized labor, have by agreement or by necessity set up minimum wage standards which are frequently if not usually above the legal minimum. The actual practice of industry holds for this problem as it does for the problem of child labor. In many instances in communities where a legal limitation of 14 or 15 years is placed upon the employment of child labor, industries have voluntarily set up a minimum age of 16, having found that in actual experience it was unprofitable in the long run to employ younger children.

Hence we see in actual practice that industry almost in spite of itself tends to come to satisfactory conclusions with the social worker and the social idealist. In some cases industry has gone beyond the suggestions of the social workers. In other cases it is still engaged in the healthful process of debate with them. Two things result. The first is manifestly that, willy-nilly, industry in these times must

be concerned with social and ethical values. The second is that the social worker must assume a very real responsibility; and that responsibility reduces simply to this: In promoting any new advance in applying social ideals to industry the social worker must be absolutely sure of his facts and must not go off "half cocked," must not assume an arbitrary attitude, but must be willing to learn, to conciliate, and to take counsel.

It is evident that there is no fundamental alienation between social work and industry. The proof of this is the rush for industrial jobs by social workers. The social worker apparently is always seeking for an opportunity to express idealism. His first opportunity came in the church, then in the settlement, next in social work as it has been generally understood, either in the field of remedial case work, or in the larger mass work conducted by legislative and reform agencies. Now apparently he finds his best opportunity, or at least thinks he may find it, in industry. There is a decided restlessness amongst many caseworkers, for example. To them case work appears futile and indecisive. Not a few social workers have told me that case work and social work in general seem to get them nowhere. They think that the opportunities in industry are more effective because their work would be more concrete and more permanent. So far this rush, however, has been tempered by a lack of real jobs, although it is true that industry has swallowed up a considerable number of outstanding figures in the social field. Banks, insurance companies, department stores, manufacturing concerns, great industries like coal, steel, and clothing, have not hesitated to avail themselves of conspicuous figures who had won their spurs in social work. Now the question arises whether or not captive Greece may not lead captive her rude conqueror.

However that may be, there is a real need and a real opportunity for social workers in certain phases of industrial work, and even in other aspects of industry and business. Wherever case work is needed or real idealism, or the mediatory spirit, or fact-finding instead of fault-finding, there is a real opportunity for expressing the spirit and technique of social work. The trained social worker is needed in handling cases of relief which frequently occur in any large industry. It is true also in employee family troubles, such as desertion, divorce, or illegitimacy. In the case of sickness and accident, also very conspicuously in the case of donations to social agencies it is no less true. Social workers are frequently called upon to advise the management as to whether donations should be made to this or that agency, and if so, how much? They are called upon to advise as to the comparative effectiveness of the work of this, that, or the other agency. They are asked to advise as to endowments, or bequests or memorials. They are asked to pass upon legislative measures pending before state legislatures or Congress, and to advise the manufacturer as to what his stand should be, or if he should take any stand at all. It is not infrequent that a manufacturer under such advice "lays off" opposing social welfare measures, even though a manufacturers' association may be actively engaged in fighting them.

Even in cases of accident, where automatically workmen's compensation laws may be assumed to intervene and operate, the social worker's technique must be brought into play; for usually the great run of accidents are of short duration, and may not fall within the term of the compensation law; or, the compensation under the law may not be deemed adequate for a given case. Therefore, the employer, upon the recommendation of his social advisers, may elect to go beyond the law, and provide com-

pensation where it is not legally required, or may add to the compensation provided by law. This is where case work comes in, to determine what actually should be done, given certain conditions determined by accepted procedure of investigation.

Case work is utilized in hiring. A proper employment card record includes family status, race, age, dependents, and other categories familiar to case workers. In dealing with absentees, employment visitors call upon the worker at his home. Case work frequently brings an industrial relations department into contact with the immigration authorities. For example, a dependent or dissolute or criminal worker may be an object of discussion as to the wisdom of his deportation. Or on the other hand, it may be a question of bringing into the country other members of his family. In such cases, the employee's record and case technique are of value in stating his case to the immigration officials. Again, the medical and nursing records of a personnel staff are of extreme value in administering sickness or accident relief to the workers or their families. They may be also valuable in assisting the Juvenile Court, Court of Domestic Relations, Mothers' Pension Board, Red Cross Home Service, or other organizations, in checking up their investigations and records.

Frequently the social worker in industry is also called upon to cooperate with an employee in financing a loan from such an organization as the Morris Plan Bank. Sometimes the social worker personnel manager acts as a co-signer in guaranteeing such loans. Naturally he would do so only upon the basis of more or less detailed case investigation. For the same reason, and by means of the same facts, it is frequently possible to render legal aid to employees, helping them to steer clear from the pit-falls of litigation, putting them into contact with legal aid societies or helping them in handling their property investments.

Finally, as I have said elsewhere, "In the handling of discipline, which is one of the functions of industrial relations work, an understanding of case work is invaluable. The labor policy under which we operate offers every employee the opportunity for a hearing by the labor manager before he can be discharged. The shop executives have the right of suspension, but not of discharge. The investigation of the shop and other records of the suspended persons calls into play the same qualities that mark a successful case worker, and I mean by this a constructive imagination and the ability to get down to root causes. At a hearing of a suspension case facts with regard to the person's health, temperament, general character, past performance in his shop, racial and political affiliations and activities, domestic and financial status are all brought out. They are all weighed and given due consideration before arriving at a decision as to whether the individual shall be discharged or reinstated, placed on probation, or penalized by a lay-off or otherwise."

Having granted this much scope to the social worker in industry, does this cover the whole field? By no means. A number of questions press for answer. For example, is not indirect work better than direct intervention by the social worker in industrial disputes? Is it not better for him to be interested in and to work for child labor measures, for the shorter work day, for the minimum wage, than to take sides definitely in cases of industrial disputes and strikes? Should charitable agencies care for strikers and their families? Should social workers, as officials or as private citizens, take sides in an industrial dispute?

No categorical answer can be given to all of these questions; but this principle should be kept in mind, that after all industry is not the whole of social life. The industrial worker is a member of the community, as well as a worker

in a given business or industrial organization. He is entitled therefore to all of his rights as a citizen, and the community's agencies both public and private should be at his service, no matter in what particular economic or political argument he may be involved. Even if a man commits a crime there is no reason why all of society's welfare agencies should cut him and his family off absolutely. This whole question becomes one therefore of common sense and clear thinking. We may say moreover that social workers, as officials or as private citizens, may, and perhaps should, take sides in an industrial dispute. We say they may or should; but they should not *as officials* take such sides without authorization committing their organization to such a step, and in any event they must be prepared to take the consequences. In other words, the same principle holds here which holds for the university teacher. A great battle has been fought for academic freedom, that is, for the freedom of the instructor to express his opinions regarding matters pertaining to his specific subject in his teaching and before his classes. On the other hand, if, as a university official, he goes out into his community and takes active sides on some bitter controversy raging in the community, he must expect to take the consequences of his action. The university or college cannot be expected to back him up in his private adventures in the community, although it may stand back of him absolutely in so far as his opinion goes in the subject matter of his teaching and in his relation to his university classes. Any business man if he takes active sides on a political or religious issue cannot expect to be protected from the consequences of his partisanship if some of his fellow business men or his customers take their trade from him to some other person whose views they more nearly approve. That is to say, neither the social worker nor the university teacher can

claim immunity from his acts if he goes beyond his specific professional field. Any scientist who is an expert in his own field, let us say biology, who goes into the newspapers and makes a pronouncement, say, upon the subject of money, must be expected to stand the consequences of ridicule and criticism if his views are pronounced unsound by financial experts. In other words, he cannot claim immunity on account of his scientific position for venturing into a field he has not made his own.

Perhaps now a few words of caution might be given to social workers who are thinking of entering industry, or to agencies which are training social workers and which should be advised of certain conditions in industry which ought to be frankly stated to the prospective social workers. In the first place, they should be warned that revolutions in industry and revolutions in the nature of either employer or employee cannot be expected over night. Human nature changes, yes, but it changes slowly. The social worker must be expected, therefore, to feel at times the same sense of futility that he frequently feels in a case working agency or in some other form of social work.

In the second place, the social worker should be forewarned that human nature is pretty equally distributed. Neither employer nor employee has any monopoly on virtue or idealism. There is a common superstition to the effect that the employer is dominated primarily by the profit motive, but that labor is idealistic and is in no wise contaminated by such a motive. Anyone who is familiar with the administration of labor or with the organized labor movement knows perfectly well that there is in the United States, as there has long been in England, a definite philosophy in labor circles to restrict output in order to keep up wages. There is also a philosophy in the United States long registered in the history of the American Fed-

eration of Labor, to restrict immigration, in order to protect the wages of the American wage earner. There is also a frank avowal of the principle of getting the highest wage possible, which is, after all, only a labor statement of the old economic principle of buying in the cheapest market and selling in the highest. "Get all we can," says a recent number of the Painters' and Decorators' Journal. The same sentiment is frankly voiced by the head of the Chicago Federation of Labor. "Get while the getting is good," say others. What is this after all, but another statement of the familiar, old principle of charging all that the traffic will bear? If any other illustration be necessary, let the student or the social worker watch a group of organized or unorganized labor in a time of labor scarcity. He will find strikes and resignations, hunting for new jobs, and high turn-over, as an attempt on the part of the worker to capitalize his scarcity value. This is no criticism of either the individual worker or of organized labor: it is simply the statement of patent fact. All of which is simply an injunction to the social worker and the idealist to be a little more realistic in their approach to the problems of industry, and to be a little more just in their analysis of the respective psychology of the employer and the employee. To fail to do so is bound to involve the idealist and the social worker in pronounced disillusionment when he comes into actual contact with the day by day problems of industry.

A third fact to remember is that business is not strictly scientific. Some industries have been able to reduce many processes to a pretty thorough scientific basis; and through what is known as scientific management an attempt has been made to apply scientific principles to the handling of labor. Yet, so far, it must be admitted that business is more largely a matter of feeling than it is of statistical

facts. Business is depressed and in the dumps or is walking over the mountain-tops, not usually by reason of scientific principles or ascertained facts, but because of feelings, "hunches," mob-mind. In other words, business is sensitive; it is emotional; it is subject to violent swings; it is the victim of moods, of prejudice, of hysterical slants. These factors must be taken into consideration always by anybody who is attempting to breathe a new spirit into industry, or attempting to serve as a mediator between hostile and suspicious factors in industrial situations.

Fourth. This leads to the frank admission that industrial relations work is not strictly scientific. Some people consider it merely adventitious. Recently, somebody has applied the opprobrious epithet "kept ideologist" to the personnel manager, or the industrial relations expert. We need not worry about such epithets. However, the social worker would do well to keep in mind that there is a critical attitude which he may have to weather if he makes a success in his ministrations to industry.

Finally, a word must be given to the subject of welfare work, if for no other reason than because this field is usually where the social worker and industry most easily and conveniently meet. In general, it may be said that welfare work is almost a *sine qua non* of modern plant equipment. It is thoroughly integrated into American business and industry. Probably no less than two thousand business and industrial concerns of the United States have a more or less well developed welfare lay-out, for which they expend many millions of dollars every year. It is utilized in some form or other by most modern, large scale manufacturing plants, by large retailers, banks, insurance companies, and other commercial concerns. Experience demonstrates that regardless of the criticisms which have been leveled at it, welfare work rightly conceived is not incompatible with

collective bargaining, or with any other of the legitimate aspirations of the modern labor movement. Moreover, no one need hesitate to say flatly that the cost of welfare work does not come out of wages. With equal frankness it may be said that welfare work is no full solution of the labor problem. Anybody who pins his faith to it for that purpose is likely to suffer costly disillusionment. However, it may contribute, and contribute largely, to industrial morale. It will be more likely to do so if four simple principles are observed: first, it must really be exactly what it appears to be; there must be no camouflage about it, no double motive; it should not be inaugurated with apologies; it must define itself in its own terms and by its own methods; it cannot be substituted for the just demands of the workers. Second, it must fit in with the general fair spirit of the employer's recognized labor policy; that is, it must be in the picture, it must be in keeping with the history of the company and its relations with its employees. It must symbolize and express fair dealing, and not charity. For that reason, in the third place, it should develop only as the expanding consciousness of the workers calls for such service. Its various special features should never be thrown at, nor wished on the workers, but should be introduced only after a clear need and demand of them has been expressed by the workers. This does not mean that legitimate means of creating demand may not be utilized. In the fourth place, although it may sound like a hard saying, such welfare work should pay for itself in some way or other in production costs, conceived broadly and considered in the long run. The following out of this principle will prove the assertion made before, namely, that welfare work is not a deduction from the employee's wages. Its observance will also automatically relieve welfare work from any suspicion of mere charity.

In short then, a natural kinship is being discovered between industry as it takes on the spirit of service, and social work as it refines its technique and orients itself as a profession. The experience derived from association already set up between the two fields may serve to strengthen and to vitalize this sense of kinship and mutual social responsibility.



THE best born child in the world would doubtless become the worst criminal were he placed in a bad home to be reared by criminal parents. Hamilton, *The Policewoman*, p. 151.

SOCIALIST leaders imagine that a socialist state would be administered by idealistic reformers like themselves. These are, of course, delusions; a reform, once achieved, is handed over to the average citizen. B. Russell, *Icarus*, p. 51.

A WORLD grown more conscious of life-processes, a public seeking social welfare, waits to see if the corporation and the automatic machine can be swung somewhat away from private gain, and somewhat more toward public good. Pound, *The Iron Man in Industry*, p. 115.

THE AMERICAN reading his Sunday paper in a state of lazy collapse is perhaps the most perfect symbol of the triumph of quantity over quality that the world has yet seen. Whole forests are being ground into pulp daily to minister to our triviality. Babbitt, *Democracy and Leadership*, p. 242.

THE CONCEPT OF SOCIAL DISTANCE

AS APPLIED TO THE STUDY OF RACIAL ATTITUDES AND RACIAL RELATIONS

ROBERT E. PARK

Professor of Sociology, University of Chicago

I

SOCIAL DISTANCE DEFINED

THE CONCEPT of "distance" as applied to human, as distinguished from spacial relations, has come into use among sociologists, in an attempt to reduce to something like measurable terms the grades and degrees of understanding and intimacy which characterize personal and social relations generally.

We frequently say of A that he is very "close" to B, but that C is distant and reserved, but that D, on the other hand, is open-minded, sympathetic, understanding, and generally "easy to meet." All these expressions describe and to some extent measure "social distance."

We do not, it must be confessed, know all the factors that enter into and determine what we call social distance. We know, to be sure, that in many cases "reserve" is an effect of timidity and self-consciousness. We know, also, that under certain circumstances reserves may be "broken down" and that with this break-down social distances dissolve and the most intimate understandings are frequently established.

The point is that we are clearly conscious, in all our personal relationships, of degree of intimacy. A is closer to

B than C and the *degree of this intimacy measures the influence which each has over the other.*

The fact that we can so easily distinguish degrees of intimacy suggests that we may be able eventually to measure "distance" in the sense in which that word is here used, quite as accurately as we now measure intelligence, since we do not know all the factors that determine intelligence any more than we know all the factors that determine intimacy.

The native human impulse that leads us to enter imaginatively into the other persons' minds, to share their experience and sympathize with their pains and pleasures, joys and sorrows, hopes and fears, may be blocked by self-consciousness, by vague fears, by positive self-interest, etc., and all these are matters that need to be reckoned with in seeking to measure "distances."

Now it is not only true that we have a sense of distance toward individuals with whom we come into contact but we have much the same feeling with regard to classes and races. The terms "race consciousness" and "class consciousness," with which most of us are familiar, describe a state of mind in which we become, often suddenly and unexpectedly conscious of the distances that separate, or seem to separate us, from classes and races whom we do not fully understand.

Not only is it true that we have this sense of distance with reference to whole groups of persons but it is also true that "race" and "class" consciousness frequently interferes with, modifies and qualifies personal relations; relations which, under other circumstances, it seems, might become of the most intimate and understanding sort.

For example, the lady of the house may be on the most intimate personal relations with her cook, but these intimate relations will be maintained only so long as the cook

retains her "proper distance." There is always some sort of social ritual that keeps the cook in her place, particularly when there are guests. This is one of the things that every woman knows.

The same is true in the relations of races. The negro is "all right in his place" and the same is probably true of every other race, class or category of persons towards whom our attitudes have become fixed, customary, and conventionalized. Every one, it seems, is capable of getting on with every one else, provided each preserves his proper distance.

The importance of these personal and racial reserves, which so invariably and inevitably spring up to complicate and, in some measure, to fix and conventionalize our spontaneous human relations, is that they get themselves expressed in all our formal social and even our political relations.

It is characteristic of democracy that, relatively speaking and in theory, there are no "social distances." Walt Whitman, who interpreted democracy mystically and poetically, refused to shut out any human creature from the circle of his cordial understanding and sympathy. In his famous lines addressed *To a Common Prostitute*, he said: "Not until the sun excludes you will I exclude you." And in that inclusive phrase he seemed to include in a wide fraternal embrace everything human and living which the rain wet and the sun warmed. But he did not profess to make no distinction at all between human beings.

Democracy abhors social distinctions but it maintains them. The difference between democracy and other forms of society is that it refuses to make class or race, i. e., group distinctions. Distinctions and distances must be of a purely individual and personal nature. In an individualistic society like ours, every man theoretically is treated on his merits as an individual.

Aristocratic society, on the other hand, maintains itself by an insistence on social distinctions and differences. The obeisances, condescensions, and ceremonial taboos which characterize a highly stratified society exist for the express purpose of enforcing the reserves and social distances upon which the social and political hierarchy rests.

The ideals of democratic society, as we know them, are a heritage of the frontier. On the frontier, where there are, generally speaking, no traditions, no condescensions, and no obeisances, every man is master of his own immortal soul. Under these circumstances social distances disappear and social relations are more direct, candid, and informal than they are likely to be under any other circumstances.

But the frontier has passed or is passing. Besides the very existence of frontier life assumed conditions that no longer obtain. In any case, the frontier has its own peculiar prejudices. The characteristic prejudice of the frontier was directed not against the stranger, but against the man who acted strangely, who stood aloof or assumed superiority, who did not fraternize and mix. Any sort of reserve was likely to be looked on with suspicion. Under these conditions the melting pot was effective and democracy flourished.

With the coming of the Oriental, however, the situation changed. He looked strange, he spoke a quaint language, and he developed habits of industry and thrift that were intolerable to those who had to compete with him. On this point democratic society broke down. It was no longer possible to treat the Orientals as individuals. They did not assimilate. One looked at them without being able to tell what was going on in their heads. They were "foreign devils." As Bret Harte expressed it, "For ways that are dark and tricks that are vain, the heathen Chinese is

peculiar." Competition, which had been personal, became racial, and race competition became race conflict.

As a result of this conflict we have had the rise of a new "race consciousness," so called, a consciousness based on "color." *The Rising Tide of Color*, which makes the title of Lothrop Stoddard's book, is a description of the circumstances and conditions under which that new consciousness has arisen. Because group consciousness usually grows out of group conflict it invariably brings with it group prejudice.

What we ordinarily call prejudice seems then to be more or less instinctive and spontaneous disposition to maintain social distances. Those distances, in our democratic society, tend to assume a purely individual character. We say we are without prejudice, but we choose our company. On the frontier, before the coming of the Chinaman, and in our village communities where every one called every one else by his first name, we succeeded fairly well in maintaining a society without race or class distinctions. But in the cities we have become "class conscious," just as, with the emancipation of the negro and the invasion of the European and Asiatic immigrants, we have become "race conscious."

Prejudice, in this broad conception of the term, seems to be an incident of group consciousness just as reserve seems to be an incident of self-consciousness. The child at first has no reserves; knows nothing either of pride, humility, gratitude, nor of any of the other excitements and the sufferings of self-consciousness.

The child has no class or race prejudices either. Except in precocious children these manifestations of group consciousness that we call "class" and "race" consciousness do not ordinarily appear until shortly before the age of puberty. When they do arrive, however, they bring with

them all the traditional prejudices by which the class and race distinctions and the traditional social distances are maintained.

It is not intended, in what has been said, to suggest that consciousness, race consciousness, prejudice, and all the personal and social distinctions related to social distance, are in any sense identical with it.

As a matter of fact self-consciousness usually arises out of some sort of personal conflict and the personal reserves that spring up as a consequence of past conflicts and the anticipation of new ones, serve the purpose of preserving the individual's private, personal life from intrusion, misinterpretation, and censorship.

Prejudice, on the other hand, seems to arise when, not our economic interests, but our social status is menaced. Prejudice and race prejudice are by no means to be identified by social distance, but arise when our personal and racial reserves are, or seem to be, invaded. Prejudice is on the whole not an aggressive but a conservative force; a sort of spontaneous conservation which tends to preserve the social order and the social distances upon which that order rests.

One purpose of a racial study is to measure, not our prejudices, but those vaguer, subtler taboos and inhibitions which persist even in so mobile and changing an order as our own, and represent the stabilizing, spontaneous, and instinctive and conservative forces upon which social organization rests.

THE MEASUREMENT OF SOCIAL ATTITUDES

WILLIS W. CLARK

*Department of Educational Research, Los Angeles City Schools
Lecturer in Sociology, University of Southern California*

SOCIAL attitudes have a place of fundamental importance in social life, and their study should become one of the primary objectives of social psychological effort. Social attitudes are tendencies to act with reference to some phase of associative life.¹ According to Thomas, the attitudes which are more or less generally found among the members of a social group, which have a real importance in the life organization of the individuals who have developed them, and which manifest themselves in the social activities of these individuals practically comprise the field of social psychology.²

The scientific study of social attitudes involves the use of techniques which are characteristic of all scientific procedure, namely, objective methods of investigation, interpretation, and evaluation.

The social attitudes of an individual may be determined by two general methods of investigation each of which is inductive and each of which permits considerable variation in technique. The first includes the study of behavior and experiences while the second method attempts a direct determination of attitudes. A thorough-going study will undoubtedly make use of a combination of the two methods.

The first type of investigation involves the accurate description of behavior (which will imply certain attitudes)

¹ Bogardus, Emory S., *Introduction to Sociology*, p. 94.

² Thomas, W. I. and Znaniecki, Florian, *The Polish Peasant in Europe and America*, Vol. I, p. 30.

and of experiences (which are preliminary to the development of attitudes). The procedures are similar to those of the social case history and life history with the necessary examination of source materials, including correspondence, various documents, public records, newspaper items, etc., and the interviewing of first-hand informational sources, particularly the individual being studied and those who have definite information concerning the experiences and behavior of this individual. An outline of possible sources of information is suggestive of the variety of sources which may be available in different cases.³

- I. Family sources
- II. Acquaintances
- III. Employment sources
- IV. Documentary sources
- V. Legal sources
- VI. Professional sources
- VII. Institution sources
- VIII. The investigator as a source

In securing any data there should be a definite effort to use objective methods of recording data (1) by the use of descriptive words and phrases which have a definite meaning, and (2) by the use of standardized tests, scales, and other measuring instruments.

The second method of investigation is that which endeavors to arrive at a direct determination of attitudes. As attitudes are subjective, this method involves the securing of data directly from the person concerned by interview, examination, or investigation of written materials which may express his attitudes. The principal methods of securing direct data concerning attitudes are the following: (1) obtaining expressions of opinion or judgments, (2) obtaining answers to questions in a questionnaire, (3) securing an expression as to the truth or falsity of a given

³ Williams, Clark, Covert, Bryant, *Whittier Social Case History Manual*, 14, 15.

statement, (4) obtaining an indication of a person's choice of a series of possible specific attitudes concerning a given social value, (5) devising methods which will indirectly indicate the person's attitude.

(1) Expressions of opinion or judgments which are intended to convey attitudes may readily be obtained by examination of the writings of an individual or by conversational methods. It is obviously essential for obtaining satisfactory results by this method that the investigator have his field of inquiry well organized and that he have a satisfactory working knowledge of the field which he endeavors to investigate.

(2) The questionnaire method is, at best, of limited service in the investigation of attitudes. Its principal value lies in the securing of relatively simple data which may be answered in terms of time, space, and position, or by numbers, or by affirmation and negation. When a questionnaire is so thoroughly worked out that social attitudes may be indicated by a check mark or simple answer, it is usually known as a "True-false" test.

*multiple
response*

(3) "True-false" statements may be used to indicate attitudes if they are properly devised. The method of voting on various civic issues such as municipal ownership, bond issues, a referendum, etc., illustrates a common use of this type of investigation. For social research purposes, it is essential that any statement presented for the purpose of determining attitude by an expression of truth or falsity must be unitary and not susceptible to a variety of interpretations. Almost every social value may be analyzed in terms of a variety of effects which it is presumed to have on the various aspects of social welfare. To obtain an adequate idea of any person's general attitude of a given social value, it is necessary to secure a sufficient number of specific attitudes concerning this value so that the com-

posite of the specific attitudes will be the equivalent of the general attitude.⁴

(4) An individual's evaluation of a series of specific situations may be used to indicate his attitudes. Here again it is essential that the situations shall be of sufficient variety to cover the field of inquiry. The ability of a person to rate the relative value, significance, quality, seriousness, etc., of given situations may be used as an indication of his attitudes. These situations might be descriptions of misbehavior, good behavior, occupational activity, etc. The writer has prepared a series of statements concerning juvenile offenses which will illustrate this method.⁵ These offenses have been evaluated in terms of social consequence and certain typical offenses have been selected for a test of judgment of social consequences. The opinions expressed as to the relative seriousness of any given offense probably indicate an individual's attitude towards offenders of this type or towards this type of offense. A sample of this test is presented herewith:

GROUP I

Directions: After reading the statements of offenses, number each in order of *social consequence*, from 1 (least serious) to 7 (most serious). Give each offense a different number.

Sent to parental school because he struck teacher; accused of drawing knife on a boy whose bicycle he had stolen, when the boy claimed it; arrested for carrying a black-jack and knife-----
Signed name of employer to recommendation which he had written for himself-----
Had stolen diamonds and jewelry on several occasions to value of \$3,000-----
Habitually runs away from home and keeps late hours, very unsatisfactory record in school; disobedient at

Cf. Warren, Howard C., *Human Psychology*, pp. 360 ff.

⁵ Clark, Willis W., *Whittier Scale for Grading Juvenile Offenses*.

home, continually giving parents trouble by failing to return home promptly from school and refusing to obey; this conduct continued for a period of six years.-----
 Stole watch and knife to value of \$25.-----
 Ran away from orphanage and went to work with a circus -----
 Took one dollar from father's cupboard-----

Data concerning attitudes of two groups—delinquent boys and teachers—as indicated by ratings of the above offenses and certain other offenses are presented in Table I.

TABLE I

RATINGS OF SERIOUSNESS OF OFFENSES BY FIFTY TEACHERS AND FIFTY SPECIAL SCHOOL BOYS

(1 least serious to 7 most serious)

I Sent to parental school because he struck teacher; accused of drawing a knife on a boy whose bicycle he had stolen, when the boy claimed it; arrested for carrying a black-jack and a knife.

Ratings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Median	Q
Teachers	--	3	2	3	8	10	24	6.9	0.9
Sp. Boys	2	2	4	6	2	17	17	6.5	1.3

II Signed name of employer to recommendations which he had written for himself.

Ratings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Median	Q
Teachers	1	1	6	10	16	8	8	5.4	1.0
Sp. Boys	10	12	5	7	9	4	3	3.6	1.6

III Has stolen diamonds and jewelry on several occasions to value of \$3,000.

Ratings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Median	Q
Teachers	--	1	--	3	12	21	13	6.4	1.2
Sp. Boys	--	1	3	4	11	15	16	6.4	1.3

IV Habitually runs away from home and keeps late hours, very unsatisfactory record in school; disobedient at home, continually giving parents trouble by failing to return home promptly from school and refusing to obey; this conduct continued for a period of six years.

<i>Ratings</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<i>Median</i>	<i>Q</i>
Teachers	5	10	14	6	4	7	4	3.7	1.4
Sp. Boys	--	6	4	12	9	10	10	5.5	1.2

V Stole watch and knife to value of \$25.00.

<i>Ratings</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<i>Median</i>	<i>Q</i>
Teachers	--	3	15	21	8	3	--	4.3	0.7
Sp. Boys	3	6	14	14	8	5	--	4.1	0.8

VI Ran away from orphanage and went to work with a circus.

<i>Ratings</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<i>Median</i>	<i>Q</i>
Teachers	36	8	3	2	--	--	1	1.7	0.4
Sp. Boys	12	13	14	5	3	1	2	3.0	0.9

VII Took one dollar from father's cupboard.

<i>Ratings</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<i>Median</i>	<i>Q</i>
Teachers	10	23	15	1	1	--	--	2.7	0.8
Sp. Boys	25	9	7	2	4	2	1	2.0	1.1

VIII Known to have entered houses of prostitution and admitted having had illicit relations.

<i>Ratings</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<i>Median</i>	<i>Q</i>
Teachers	2	--	5	4	6	11	22	6.7	1.1
Sp. Boys	12	8	8	8	6	5	1	3.6	1.4

IX Had sexual relations with school girl on several occasions, persisted in accompanying two girls to hills although denied having immoral relations with them.

<i>Ratings</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<i>Median</i>	<i>Q</i>
Teachers	--	--	--	2	2	3	43	7.4	0.3
Sp. Boys	3	5	7	13	3	7	12	4.8	1.7

X Ran away from home.

<i>Ratings</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<i>Median</i>	<i>Q</i>
Teachers	30	11	3	3	1	1	1	1.8	0.7
Sp. Boys	19	9	7	4	6	4	1	2.7	1.5

Average of quartile deviation for teachers.....0.85

Average of quartile deviation for special school boys.....1.25

Although the table is self explanatory, a few items are worthy of special mention. It is seen that special school boys considered offenses IV, VI, and X more serious than the teachers did. On the other hand, offenses II, VIII, and IX were considered to be of more consequence by teachers than by special school boys. For the other offenses there were no marked average differences. In nearly all instances there was more variability in opinions by the group

of special school boys than by the teachers. Offenses concerning running away (VI and X) were consistently considered relatively serious by special school boys; offenses against chastity (VIII and IX) were, on the average, considered of markedly less consequence by the boys than by teachers. Additional verification of significant variation in the attitude of both boys and teachers would be furnished by comparing their average with the norms⁶ for each offense from I to X, which are respectively: 6.5, 4.5, 7.5, 3.5, 5.5, 2.5, 5.5, 7.5, and 1.5. As would be expected, the average opinion of teachers more nearly approximates the norm than does the average attitude of special school boys.

(5) An adequate method of determining attitudes directly will require considerable ingenuity in devising tests which may be used to indicate attitudes without the examinee's knowledge. For example, if it were desired to obtain a given individual's attitude concerning forgery, a series of descriptions of behavior concerning this offense might be inserted in groups of other types of delinquent acts. After the ratings have been made, his attitude concerning these offenses might be singled out for interpretation. It would be a relatively simple matter to determine whether he had a lenient, moderate, or strict attitude concerning forgery. Four descriptions of forgery inserted in groups of offenses, similar to the group given above, and rated by teachers and special school boys illustrate the method. These statements of forgery are as follows:

Signed name of employer to recommendation which he had written for himself.

Gave several bad checks in payment for gasoline to run automobile.

⁶The norms consist of the average opinion of eighty persons,—forty university faculty members and graduate students and forty professional workers, administrators and business men. The coefficient of reliability of the norms is 0.97,—nearly perfect correlation.

Forged check for \$100, signing father's name.
 Forged endorsement on \$25 check payable to grandmother.

The offenses had been previously evaluated in terms of social consequences so that it was possible to determine the deviation of any individual's rating from a norm. Table II presents the average deviation of the four ratings for

TABLE II

AVERAGE DEVIATION OF TEACHERS AND SPECIAL SCHOOL BOYS
 FROM THE NORM IN RATING FORGERY
 WITH PERCENTILE EQUIVALENTS

<i>Average of Deviations From Norm</i>	<i>Percentile Equivalents</i>	<i>Teachers</i>	<i>Special School Boys</i>
1.50	84	--	--
1.25	80	1	--
1.00	75	1	--
0.75	69	4	1
0.50	63	3	--
0.25	57	3	1
0.00	50	1	2
-0.25	43	--	3
-0.50	37	--	1
-0.75	31	2	3
-1.00	25	4	5
-1.25	20	--	--
-1.50	16	--	2
-1.75	12	1	1
-2.00	9	--	--
-2.25	7	--	--
-2.50	5	--	--
-2.75	3	--	--
-3.00	2	--	1
TOTAL		20	120
MEDIAN		+.25	-.75

twenty teachers and twenty special school boys. The validity of the method is indicated by the fact that we would normally expect school boys to consider the offense of forgery as less serious than it would be considered by teachers. It is seen that there is a definite tendency for teachers to consider forgery more serious than special school boys do. The amount of difference is indicated by $+.25$ and $-.75$. This may be interpreted by the method of construction of the test to be equal to 1 Probable Error or twenty-five per cent, as a difference of 1 in average deviation is 1 P. E., which is equivalent to twenty-five per cent. It may be further interpreted to indicate that on the average, teachers consider forgery of greater seriousness than the norm, and that the average special school boy considers it of less consequence than the norm. This standardization of values could hardly have been effected other than by statistical methods which are a development in mathematical terms of the principles of logic and reduce the probability of many of the most serious logical fallacies.⁷ It is possible that there is a definite relation between the formation of certain attitudes and such factors, as age, sex, intelligence level, temperament, race, etc.

In evaluating the attitudes of any group or the relative significance of various attitudes, objective methods should be continuously applied. Recent developments in increasing the objectivity of evaluation by the use of scales, standards, standard score sheets, percentile charts, T scores, etc. are well known and are undoubtedly recognized as desirable instruments of precision in the scientific study of social life.

Despite the complexity of the problem, the measurement of attitudes is of fundamental importance in the establish-

⁷ Cf. Hart, Hornell, "Science and Sociology," *American Journal of Sociology*, XXVII, 383.

ment of a science of social psychology and for social telesis. Progress in the technique of measurement will be made through a gradual increase in understanding of the inter-social relationships and of the coexistence and sequence of causes and effects. The application of scientific methods will result in better investigation which will permit more accurate interpretations; these interpretations, in turn, will reflect back and improve investigational procedures. A proper coordination of the methods of investigation and evaluation of data will undoubtedly result in techniques of social research which may be truthfully called scientific.



SCIENCE has not given men more self-control, more kindliness, or more power of discounting their passions in deciding upon a course of action. B. Russell, *Icarus*, p. 63.

NO EMPLOYER chooses to employ a child because he is a child. He employs him because he is cheap. The cheaper the labor the greater the profit. Gillette, *The People's Corporation*, p. 51.

IN THE interest of scientific objectivity, and that means in the interest of truth, it (the scientific mind) must protect its intellectual processes from the emotional strains and stresses of field leadership. A. B. Wolfe, *Conservatism, Radicalism, and Scientific Method*, p. 317.

IF WE recognize that the community has come to be in actual fact one of the "parties" to business enterprise, it certainly follows that this party is entitled to be given the facts regarding the industry with which his interests are so vitally concerned. Cowdrick, *Manpower in Industry*, p. 293.

TEACHING SCIENTIFIC THINKING TO SOCIAL SCIENCE STUDENTS

EDWIN L. CLARKE

Department of Sociology, University of Minnesota

THE FIRST and most important service which a sociology teacher can perform for his students is to help them to learn to think. The student who learns to think for himself, who can find his way around in the world of ideas without an intellectual nurse, is well equipped for life. He can adapt himself to any situation which may arise. The student, on the other hand, who may be a walking encyclopedia but who does not know how to think for himself, is in the future almost certain to be intellectually bewildered and helpless in the presence of changing conditions. He will, moreover, be as obstructive socially as is the octogenarian who today clings to the "truths" which were taught him in his youth, the wages fund theory, the *laissez faire* theory, the Mosaic account of the creation. He may not have to wait a half century for his debacle. The very year of his graduation may see him swept off his feet by the hysteria of a Ku Klux Klan, an anti-Red movement, or a Billy Sunday revival. It does not greatly matter, therefore, how many pages of Spencer, Comte, or Ward a man has read, but it does make all the difference in the world whether he can distinguish fact from fancy, truth from superstition, propaganda from science.

We teachers of sociology acknowledge these facts in theory, but our practice usually falls far short of our belief. For us knowledge is so departmentalized that it seldom occurs to us to make a practice of teaching straight

thinking. That privilege seems to belong to the teacher of logic. Or perhaps we are so impressed with the importance of acquainting our students with facts that we have no time for such lessons in reasoning as are suggested by Spencer's *Study of Sociology* and Robinson's *Mind in the Making*.

This is the story of an experiment made in a beginning course in sociology, to help students acquire the ability to think straight in the very field where they are most likely to fall prey to clever reactionary alarmists or fanatical innovators. The subject is introduced with a consideration of the lack of straight thinking among Americans, causes of the failure to think straight and the harm which results. Here, and throughout the study, the performing of thought exercises occupies about twice as much time as the reading of assignments on which the exercises are based. These exercises consist largely, though not entirely, of finding original illustrations in personal experience, current events or history.

Bias and prejudice are next given extended attention. Among the subjects considered are the prejudicial influence of parents, playmates, schools, newspapers, magazines, movies, and the radio on the immature mind of the child, the effect of the biases of self-interest, custom, conventionality, credulity and the like upon thinking, the persistence of childish biases throughout life, and means of combatting bias and prejudice.

As a thought exercise the student makes an analysis of some prejudice prevalent in his home community. He first writes an unrestrained indictment of the group which is the object of the prejudice, putting in it both apparently reasonable allegations and the common current charges which are made by the fanatical. Then he rewrites the indictment, including in it only charges which he thinks can be proved to be true of the members of the group as a whole. Third, he writes as strong a defense of the group

as he can. He next gives an explanation of the cause of the opposition, analyzing it and noting to what extent it is based on bias and to what extent on reason. Finally, he makes recommendations of action which will help save the youth of the community from the prejudice.

The student is also required to read and report on a selected novel or autobiography in which the object of the prejudice on which he wrote is presented sympathetically. One whose community hates the Jew, for instance, might be assigned *The Promised Land*, by Mary Antin; one who was surrounded by enemies of socialists might be given Tressall's *Ragged Trousered Philanthropists*. Those who write of a prejudice against which no special book can be used are given Steiner's *Sanctus, Spiritus and Company*, which contains a very effective exposure of the folly of national, religious, and occupational prejudice.

The following section of the course deals with observation. Instruction is given in the elements of the power of observation, such as ability to perceive, alertness, ability to make fine discriminations, and appreciation of the complexity of social phenomena. Suggestions are given of means of improving the power of observation and the subject is concluded with a study of such causes of error as confusion of inference with observation.

Testimony is next considered. Nearly a score of common sources of false testimony, both deliberate and unintentional, are reviewed. Tests of the reliability of witnesses and of particular testimony are considered and the possibility is noted of sometimes getting satisfactory testimony from witnesses who are in general unreliable.

The class then comes to the subject of written sources. Here it notes the distinction between primary and secondary sources and considers the value and limitations of each. Methods of external and internal criticism are studied. Then follows a detailed consideration of many specific

classes of sources,—government reports, privately produced books, newspapers, periodicals and miscellaneous documents. Reasons for unreliability are indicated in each case, causes of error and methods of deceit are noted, and texts of authors and their works are considered.

Closely related to this subject is that of propaganda. The recent rise of this force is observed and its ubiquitous character is considered. Note is made of the use of the school, the press, the pulpit, the radio, and the law for propagandist purposes, special attention being given to war-time and post-war propaganda by and against the Bolsheviks and against liberals in the United States.

The study is concluded with an elementary consideration of some basic principles of logic. The student is taught to distinguish carefully between what we know, believe, expect, desire, and fear. He learns the fallacy of generalizing from single observations, single sources, unrepresentative evidence, incomplete evidence and the like. The value of deduction is indicated, with warning about the necessity of being absolutely sure of one's premises. The inductive method is explained and illustrated. Finally, the limited value of analogy is pointed out. Many cases of false reasoning, drawn from current discussion in the press and on the streets are given as problems for solution and class discussion, and the student is expected to bring in additional examples from his current reading.

Several days are devoted to each of the foregoing topics. Even then no subject is considered exhausted. Reference is constantly made to principles which have been studied. Students are expected, furthermore, to keep a scrap-book in which they file, as they find them, illustrations of misleading headlines, unfair cartoons, newspaper fabrications, illogical editorials, and the like. In this way each subject is kept fresh in the student's mind throughout the course.

STANDARDS FOR SOCIAL WELFARE AGENCIES AS TRAINING CENTERS

OPAL KARTH

School of Social Welfare, University of Southern California

ACADEMIC training in a school of social welfare is invaluable for prospective social workers, but cannot take the place of actual experience in a well established social welfare agency under the guidance of a skilled worker. In making a survey of the training facilities for social workers in the agencies of Los Angeles, the writer found that the best agencies are willing to accept the training of students as a phase of their regular activities, but that, as yet, no uniform system of training has been established. It was also found that such methods of training might be worked out on the basis of certain important standards. These have been developed in consultation with representative social workers, and are submitted as a guide for agencies in establishing an educational program for students in training.¹

1. *Willingness to give training.* A willingness to give training implies that the social welfare agencies recognize the need of training social workers and are willing to accept, as a part of their program of activities, the training of one or more such workers at a time, depending on existing conditions in the agency. Unless the various agencies feel their responsibility and give of their knowledge, experience, time, energy, and money toward this end, the effi-

¹ A student in training is to be distinguished from a volunteer social worker. The former is desirous of making social welfare a life work and a profession; the latter is willing to give his services merely out of a religious or general social interest in the work, as an activity supplementary to other interests.

ciency of the work of these same agencies cannot be advanced, and social work cannot attain to the standards set by other professions.

2. *Scientific knowledge of social work.* An agency cannot give a scientific knowledge to volunteer social workers unless the workers in the agency have been scientifically trained and hold the social science viewpoint. A college education and some training in a school of social welfare, plus a rich store of actual experiences will give the head worker the best background for carrying on efficient social work and for training students in the best and latest principles and methods of social work. If the head worker has neither time nor opportunity to instruct and advise students in training, another social worker equally as well trained should be made responsible for them. There needs to be a broad vision and a cooperative spirit back of the institution; therefore, the board of directors as well as the social workers need to be appreciative of scientific social work.

3. *Agency organized according to scientific principles of social welfare administration.* Some of the most important factors in social welfare administration are: (a) Large, modern, well equipped buildings, suitable in which to conduct well the work of the agency; (b) Adequate, well trained staff, consisting of specialists in the various fields especially suited to carry on the work of the agency; (c) Service to client rendered immediately, based upon scientific knowledge of the case, and the permanent welfare of the client; (d) Close cooperation with other agencies in order that high standards of social work may be developed and duplication may be avoided; (e) Uniform system of case record keeping and filing throughout the various agencies of the community, in order that high standards of case work may be promoted and adequate mate-

rial for social research provided; (f) An educational program emphasizing constructive and preventative measures which will lessen or eliminate the necessity of remedial social work; and (g) Training and supervision of students in order that social work as a profession may be advanced, due to the efficiency of future social workers.

4. *Sufficient funds* to conduct efficient social work. The funds necessary for an agency are dependent upon the size of the community and the type of work done by the agency. However, the funds of every agency should be sufficient to pay adequate salaries for a trained staff, and to secure the best equipment to carry on the most efficient work in the field of the agency's activities. Without funds the best principles of social welfare administration cannot be put into practice.

5. *Definite and regular time* of one worker in supervising students in training. No matter how well an agency may be organized it is of little service to students in training unless some qualified person in it is assigned to their supervision. This supervisor should be responsible for familiarizing the student with social work methods, as practiced in the agency such as case work methods, case work records and files, follow-up methods, and financial organization. This should be done through constant systematic personal supervision and regular individual and group conferences. The students need to meet once a week, at the agency, under the direction of the supervisor of social field work, in a training group for the discussion of problems and principles of social work. An ideal arrangement is for a supervisor from the school in which the student is enrolled, and the supervisor from the agency to give joint supervision to the volunteer.

6. Well planned and varied *field work practice* in agency for students. A student should give from seven to fourteen

hours a week to the agency, while a volunteer, not receiving instruction in a University, should give at least two or three days a week regularly. After the student has shown herself dependable and capable, she should be permitted to go out in the field with a regular worker, or alone on easy cases, depending upon circumstances. Both before and after going into the field the case should be thoroughly discussed with the adviser. As the student shows worth, she should be given other types of cases and more difficult ones to handle by herself, under counsel. The student who shows ability and loyalty could become familiar with the inner workings and problems of the agency more readily, if she attended the regular staff meetings of the agency.



THUS, to sum up, there is justification for concluding that primitive man was clever, kindly, adventuresome, inventive, and very variable. Thomson, *What is Man?* p. 45.

AUTHORITY, by its very nature is conservative, it conforms to existing conventions, it upholds the *status quo*, it seeks to pass on unchanged from one generation to another its inherited, conferred, or usurped functions. Salmon, *The Newspaper and Authority*, p. 2.

THE MEXICAN CASUAL PROBLEM IN THE SOUTHWEST

EDWIN F. BAMFORD

Instructor in Sociology, Baylor University

IN DEVELOPING a method of approach to the problem discussed in this article, attention is directed toward the following general questions: (1) Why do Mexicans come to the United States? (2) Into what occupations do they enter and in which of these are they most efficient? (3) What American conditions tend to promote industrial instability among Mexican immigrant workers? (4) What traits do these immigrants possess which, if properly developed, would tend to become effective in solving the Mexican casual problem? (5) Are Mexican immigrants economic and social assets or liabilities?

The causes of emigration to the United States are usually classified by writers in the social science field according to the following general types: Economic, Educational, Political, Religious, and Social. Regardless of the merits of such a classification, the causes of Mexican emigration could doubtless be made to fit in with the terms just stated. But the underlying forces which stimulate Mexican male workers to migrate to the United States are evidently economic. The simple truth is that the vast majority of these workers come to find work, or to do work already found for them.

Such conclusions are suggested by the close relationship found to exist between economic conditions in the Southwest and the extent of Mexican immigration. The highest

peak of immigration from all countries up to the present was in 1907. The following year the total for all countries was reduced almost fifty per cent. But in 1907 the demand for laborers had become evident in the Southwest. The following year, instead of a reduction in Mexican immigration to correspond with the general decrease, there was an increase of more than 500 per cent. In 1909, Mexican immigration was about 1500 per cent more than in 1907. Since that date, there has been a general tendency toward industrial expansion in the Southwest. This expansion has been accompanied by a corresponding tendency toward an increasingly higher level in Mexican immigration. The reports of organizations issuing business statistics indicate a tendency for industrial activities in the Southwest to reach higher percentages of the total for the country as a whole. The reports of the Commissioner General of Immigration show that official Mexican entries have increased also: from 0.1% of the total immigration for the country in 1907 to a very small fraction less than 12% in 1923, an increase of 120 units in proportion. In 1918, because of war activities, an extraordinary labor shortage occurred in the Southwest. During the period of labor shortage, immigration from Mexico increased 60 per cent.¹

Considering next the question of occupational distribution, it appears that the only comprehensive and reliable statistics on the question are found in the annual reports of the Commissioner General of Immigration, which contain certain statistics on occupations professed by Mexican immigrants upon entry into the United States. The following table represents a compilation made from the Commissioner's last annual report:

¹ See Annual Reports of Commissioner General of Immigration, 1918 and 1919.

OCCUPATIONS OF MEXICAN IMMIGRANT ALIENS
ADMITTED DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1923

<i>Occupations</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Professional	331	0.5
Skilled	2,268	3.6
Unskilled	36,642	58.4
Miscellaneous	1,606	2.6
No occupation*	21,862	34.9
<hr/>		
TOTAL	62,709	100.0

The greatest significance of the foregoing table, as related to this discussion, is revealed by deducting the figures for those professing no occupation. This group consists chiefly of women and children. By making the suggested deduction, it is discovered that a small fraction less than 90 per cent of the males were unskilled laborers, the remaining ten per cent of the males including professional, skilled and miscellaneous groups. The percentage of the unskilled would doubtless be increased after entrance into the United States, due to the fact that some workers rated as skilled in Mexico enter unskilled occupations in the United States. A still more detailed analysis of the Commissioner's report indicates that about 90 per cent of Mexican workers in the United States are engaged in occupations which involve rapid labor turnovers, regardless of the nationality of the workers employed therein.

Closely akin to this matter is the question: In what occupations are Mexican workers most efficient? There are conflicting opinions on this question to be found in the literature on the subject. In general, however, it may be said that: (1) the Mexican is superior to the Negro as an isolated farm worker, especially in truck-growing regions; (2) In the work of clearing land, where little supervision is needed, and in the lonely work of herding on the plains,

* Includes women and children.

the Negro is not so efficient as the Mexican; (3) in the Southwest, Mexicans are rapidly displacing Japanese, Greeks, and Italians in certain types of farm work, railroad maintenance, and mining; (4) Mexicans are especially efficient as workers in cotton fields, as compared with both Negroes and white laborers; (5) In such work as Mexicans find around the yards and mills of lumber companies, they are only a little less efficient than native white laborers. However, it should be pointed out that Mexicans also make good carpenters, machinists, plumbers, and workers in other trades. There seems no good reason for believing that Mexicans are less efficient in the skilled occupations than other groups, other factors being equal. If it is said that Mexicans would be engaged, to a greater extent, in skilled occupations if they were efficient in them, the answer is that they have less opportunity to enter skilled than unskilled occupations. Furthermore, Mexicans receive but little welcome as apprentices in many communities, and as members of American workers' organizations. In fact, there is considerable evidence indicating that Mexicans have capacities for acquiring skill similar, if not identical, to those which characterize workers of other nationalities.

This whole question of opportunity is, of course, directly related to the problem: What American conditions tend to promote instability among Mexican workers? The general answer to this question appears to be two-fold.

In the first place, the industrialization process in the Southwest is being promoted by men who are mainly interested in agriculture, commerce, manufacturing, and mining. To this process these men are giving highly intelligent direction. The Mexican workers under consideration here are involved in that process. But the presence of the Mexican worker involves not only the industrialization process, but the process of socialization as well. And the

problem of the Mexican casual, as viewed in this article, is measured by the extent to which this socialization process has failed to "keep step" with the process of industrialization. The latter has its intelligent promoters and directors. It is submitted that the socialization process should have at least an equally intelligent organization and direction. But the attitudes of those mainly interested in the process of industrialization in particular, and of the public generally, are such that the socialization process has been rather repressed, ignorantly and indifferently, than promoted and directed, understandingly and with interest. The solution of certain economic problems in the Southwest, or, at least, attempts to solve them have created certain social problems, to be considered in more detail later. In so far as these social problems have been considered, for the most part they have been considered from the economic point of view. It is apparent that no considerable number of people have given intelligent consideration to the economic problems involved from the social point of view.

In the second place, the economic process involved in this discussion has not been entirely unaccompanied by any sort of social process. The problem of the Mexican casual is a product of both economic and social change. But while the economic process of industrialization is a process of organization, the social process by which it is accompanied is, in this case, largely a process of disorganization. This disorganization is represented in the separation of the Mexican worker from his home community in Mexico. It is manifested in much of the unemployment, sickness and disease, vice and crime, poverty and dependency, bad housing and broken homes, deserted wives and neglected children, of Mexican workers in the United States. The problem of the Mexican casual, therefore, appears to be due to the following conditions: (1) the in-

dustrialization of the Southwest has stimulated the process of social conflict; (2) in so far as social accommodation is taking place, it represents almost a one-sided process, since the Mexican is doing practically all the accommodating or adjusting; (3) adequate facilities and an intelligently constructed technique for promoting the process of social assimilation, as between Mexicans and others in the Southwest, are not provided and applied in this section of the country, although this does not apply to Southern California in equal measure to the rest of the territory involved.

The foregoing presentation offers a temptation to discuss that aspect of the problem in considerable detail. It is necessary, however, to turn to another important question, which may be stated somewhat as follows: Are Mexican immigrants economic and social assets or liabilities?

It is easily possible for most American employers of Mexican workers to make out a case in favor of the Mexican worker as an economic asset in the industrialization process. But the problem of determining whether Mexican immigrants are assets or liabilities from the community point of view is more difficult of solution. Professor Jenks thinks Mexicans become public charges more frequently than Chinese or Japanese.² Referring to the Mexican influx through San Antonio in 1920, another writer states: "Hundreds of them, ragged, filthy paupers, who could not have paid the head tax, came with wives and children."³ He observed that the greater number of them found traveling from one community to another were afoot, without baggage or food. Another student, who investigated conditions among a special group of Mexican immigrants, could not conscientiously state ". . . that the Mexicans are in a state of general dependency and poverty."⁴ Several physicians, who were interviewed by the

² Jenks, J. W., *The Immigration Problem*, p. 229.

³ Slayden, Jas. L., *Annals of Am. Acad. Pol. & Soc. Science*, Jan., 1921, pp. 123-4.

present writer, without exception asserted that in their communities Mexican immigrants, in general, are more poorly nourished than the average European, American, or Negro in the same communities.

It will be noticed that there is some conflict in opinions on this question of poverty. However, each type of opinion may be supported by statistics. A study made in Los Angeles County, California, shows that Mexicans contributed one-quarter of the poverty cases studied, while constituting but one-twentieth of the population.⁵ In Williamson County, Texas, Professor Davis of the University of Texas discovered on the basis of statistics that "Farm tenancy, Mexicans, and poor schools seem to have an affinity for each other."⁶ An investigation in Fresno, California, disclosed the following facts: Mexicans contributed 8.2 per cent of the foreign-born population; but 20 per cent of the foreign-born applicants for relief were Mexicans, and this group contributed 11.2 per cent of the foreign-born families receiving permanent county aid. The Mexicans were found to be economically "lower," owned homes in smaller proportion, and lived in bad housing conditions in larger proportion, than the other foreign-born groups in the community. School teachers reported Mexican children as being inadequately dressed and fed.⁷ Dr. Laughlin's report on dependents in public institutions in the United States, on the contrary, indicates that, according to his statistical formulae, and other things being equal, the proportion of Mexican dependents would have been 0.241% of the total involved in the investigation. But

⁵ Lofstedt, Anna Christine, *A Study of the Mexican Population of Pasadena, California*. (Unpublished thesis, University of Southern California, Aug. 1, 1922, p. 13.)

⁶ Givin, J. Blaine, *Annals of Am. Acad. Pol. & Soc. Science*, Jan., 1921, p. 131.

⁷ Davis, E. E., *A Study of Rural Schools in Williamson County*. University of Texas Bull. No. 2239, Oct. 8, 1922, p. 11.

⁸ State Commission of Immigration and Housing of California. *Report on Fresno's Immigration Problem*, March, 1918, pp. 8-26.

the investigation showed the Mexican percentage so small that Dr. Laughlin ignored it and reported it as zero.⁸

There are equal dissimilarities in the results of investigations of disease, defectiveness, and crime among Mexican immigrants. The report last referred to above shows that Mexican cases of feeble-mindedness, insanity, epilepsy, tuberculosis, blindness, deafness, and other defects were from about one-twenty-fourth to about one-third as frequent as would be expected, judging from the proportion of Mexicans to the entire group of cases, and assuming that each group would be represented according to its quota. But the same report indicates that Mexican crime and juvenile delinquency were about six times as great as the Mexican proportionate quota. Referring once more to the report on Fresno's immigration problem, it will be recalled that Mexicans constituted 8.2 per cent of the foreign-born. However, Mexican cases of infant mortality were only 5.2 per cent, and Mexican cases of deaths from tuberculosis only 3.5 per cent of the total foreign-born cases. Givin's study shows that, for the period studied, the Mexican rate for infant mortality in Los Angeles was nearly three times the rate for the city at large.

Regardless of the contradictions involved in the opinions and statistics reproduced above, it is possible to draw two general conclusions from the studies represented and others which must be omitted because of space limitations. First, Mexican immigrants appear to be a community burden no greater than their population proportions would warrant in the matters of physical and mental defect. Second, Mexican immigrant cases of poverty, dependency, and crime seem to be more frequent than among other groups in proportion to population percentages.

⁸ Laughlin, Harry H., *Analysis of America's Modern Melting Pot*. Hearings before the Committee on Immigration and Naturalization, H. R., Sixty-Seventh Congress, 3rd Session. Nov. 21, 1922. Serial 7-C.

After weighing all the data at hand, the writer has concluded that Mexican immigrants in the Southwest tend to represent community liabilities because of the economic and social costs of Mexican contributions to community problems such as those mentioned in the preceding paragraphs. This does not mean, however, that it is impossible for them to become community assets, both economic and social.

Speaking generally and theoretically, there is apparent need for social control of both the economic and social processes involved in the problem of the Mexican casual. To be more specific and practical, however, the following suggestions are ventured: It is possible to create public opinion with a view to regulation of the immigration, education, conditions of employment, and general social welfare of Mexican workers. A system of free employment bureaus suggests a method for adjusting labor supply and demand in different communities. Minimum wage commissions and the Public Defender are making definite contributions to the modern movements for industrial and political justice respectively. We have at hand practical methods for requiring industry to bear the costs of its operation, including much of the cost of the Mexican casual problem. Night schools, community centers, visiting teachers, public health nurses, and other social workers, because of their achievements in combat with ignorance, crime, poverty, and disease, as well as industrial irregularities, may be employed in the solution of the problem.

WILL DEMOCRACY SURVIVE?

EMORY S. BOGARDUS

University of Southern California

I

WILL DEMOCRACY survive? This is a question about which many Americans are beginning to be doubtful. Corruption in politics, apathy on the part of voters, flagrant disrespect of laws are indications, it is said, of the failure of democracy. Woman suffrage promised well, but in the presidential election of 1920 with 27,000,000 women voters in the country only 10,000,000 voted. Despite the increasing interest in child welfare in our country there are still many thousands annually denied the right of being well born, and hundreds of thousands deprived of ordinary childhood privileges, while at the same time there are reported to be other children who have not even laced their own shoes until they were fourteen years old. Some people live sixteen to the room while others have sixteen rooms apiece. Is this democracy, it is asked.

With eugenics speaking of superior races and inferior races, and with intelligence tests classifying individuals on numerous levels of superior and inferior mentality, how can democracy survive? With every race on the globe puffing itself up into a place in the sun—a little higher than all the other races—and to the point of super-sensitiveness, even of arrogance, the doom of democracy is being written,—many believe. The answer to the alleged failure of democracy, it is contended, is to go back to the strong arm, the mailed fist, and physical force.

II

But why this predicament of democracy? Lincoln had faith in it, Roosevelt fought the superhuman forces of special privilege for it, and Wilson "sloganized" it in a way to electrify a world. The teachings of Jesus repeatedly confessed it, and his sacrificial life and death immortalized it. Modern education, reaching into remote hamlet and crowded tenement, is laying the foundations for its rationalization. Why, then, the losing struggle which many claim democracy is making?

III

What is democracy? A statement of its real nature may explain why some think that it is waning, and also why it may yet come into its own. Democracy is an attitude of responding primarily in behalf of the welfare of others and only secondarily in behalf of self. It requires a rational understanding of all life, a social vision of every human relationship, a driving purpose akin to religious motive, and a supreme inner personal control and discipline of habit and sentiment.

How many persons, even educated persons, have achieved this standard? And can anyone achieve it over night, or in a month, or a year? To attain the requisite rational thought, human vision, and spiritual purpose in proper combination requires more than a mere pronouncement of its magic name, the exercise of suffrage by the masses, or the calling it down by human voice from the heavens.

The slowness of the coming of democracy, or even its slipping backward at times, is hardly surprising when we consider that society has not yet emerged from the bar-

baric diabolism of destructive warfare into which it was plunged early in its history by the ruthless competition of economic, religious, and other interests. The plight of democracy is not to be wondered at when we consider that even in our own forward-looking country, the "average intelligence" of the people is rated as eighth grade and that we are ranked as a nation of fourteen-year olds educationally. With anti-this propaganda and anti-that propaganda continually being promulgated, with hatreds between races, between nations, between religious organizations, between economic agencies ruthlessly and ceaselessly destroying cooperation and love, with the crowd psychology of a nation of fourteen-year old children operating in times of national or international tension, it is a marvel that democracy has survived at all. And obviously it is impossible in a nation such as Russia or Mexico where high rates of illiteracy prevail.

The seeming failures of democracy may be due to the misuse and abuse of it by people not yet ready for it. Its apparent weaknesses may be caused by mistaking the form for the real substance of it, and by the deliberate confounding of it and the subtle preying upon it by its enemies traitorously carrying its banner but having little or none of it at heart and in spirit. In the name of democracy what subterfuges, what calumnies, what autocracies have fattened? No wonder its name has been sullied, and popular hope has been at times shattered.

IV

Another difficulty is that democracy has not yet clearly understood itself. Its greatest exponent in recent times, Abraham Lincoln, spoke of it somewhat formally when he referred to a government of, by, and for the people. But

may we not say that ideally, in its applied and institutional nature, democracy is not only government, but industry, and education, and religion, and art, and so on, of the people, by the people, and for the people?

If they are to be worthy of this imposing trust, the people need more than an eighth grade education; the need is for a twelfth grade or perhaps a sixteenth grade education that is both systematic and scientific. All permanently significant ideas need to be distributed to all potentially capable persons. The best of culture needs to be made part of the training of every person. The assumption that all above the mentally defective levels are potentially able to appreciate all the largest and the deepest meanings of life needs to be taken seriously by those now in charge of our systems of social control.

If democracy in the sense that it is interpreted here, is to survive, an education will be needed universally that will not allow the more fortunate in any particular to play "smart tricks" on their fellows, to "drive sharp bargains," to trade with the souls of others, or to kill another in order to get a sensation of how it feels to take human life.

Democracy will probably continue, as it has begun, to emancipate people from autocracies in government, in business, in religion, in education, but if it stops with "emancipation," then it will end in destroying itself. For a person to be emancipated from narrow superstition and heartless dogma in any phase of life is vital, but with this emancipation will need to come a new inner control and discipline of personal life, dedicated to social purposes.

V

A refined eugenics is discarding the idea of superior and inferior races as being an outworn and sentimental dogma, and is pointing out that there are races with superior and

inferior opportunities both historical and current, and that there are superior and inferior individuals in all races. A refined view of intelligence tests is declaring that these tests are dealing with the results of both cultural stimuli and inner urges. On these two assumptions democracy may work, not for a uniformity of similarities, but for a unity of differences and an equity or a fair play in opportunities.

Let the margins of difference which characterize human beings be developed fully, but dedicated first of all to promoting the common weal. Let there be both labor and capital but an autocracy of neither; let neither wages nor profits, but spiritual values rule. Let there be distribution of responsibility to all who can and will use it to enrich the lives of their fellows. Let there be nations, but with none run by secret wire-pulling and with none needlessly insulting any of the others. Let there be a world community spirit and organization. Let democracy have its logical prerequisites, and it will not only survive but thrive; it will not only give a new zest in living, but a new zest in creative living, and a new zest in abundant living.



THE AEROPLANE has made uncomfortable neighbors of London, Paris, and Berlin. Hobhouse, *Social Development*, p. 77.

FOUR general divisions of people, groups which have come down from antiquity, claim our attention in our discussion of democracy: first, a grouping by nativity; second, one by wealth; third; one by intelligence; fourth, one by occupation. Galpin, *Rural Social Problems*, p. 209.

Book Notes

RURAL SOCIAL PROBLEMS. By C. J. GALPIN. The Century Company, 1924, pp. 286.

From the author's discussion of "Why farmers think as they do" to his treatment of "The coming rural municipality," the reader's interest is kept sustained. Rural hospitals, rural life in American art, problems of farm women, are some of the important themes. Dr. Galpin objects to city squeezing conditions and would have the city ruralized. He protests vigorously to the way modern business is squeezing the home against the alley, skyward, and below ground, in fact, out of existence, and defends rural life. E. S. B.

ELEMENTS OF SOCIAL SCIENCE. By H. P. FAIRCHILD. The Macmillan Company, 1924, pp. ix+484.

In twenty-seven chapters, the high school student is taken through the fields of social control, economic factors, population problems, law and crime, and social progress. The treatment is descriptive, and helpful throughout, the point of view is broad, but the organization of chapter headings is not clear or logical. Underlying principles are not developed in an organized way. Splendid helps are given, and the many illustrations, partly of the cartoon type, are superior.

THE POLICEWOMAN, HER SERVICE AND IDEALS. By MARY E. HAMILTON. Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1924, pp. xviii+151.

In simple style, but sketchy at times, the author gives a brief account and interpretation of the work of policewomen. She has a sympathetic understanding of the policewoman's work which is excellent. The policewoman as patrol officer and as detective is described, and the opportunities for preventive work with young women and girls is pointed out.

THE PENNSYLVANIA GERMANS. By JESSE L. ROSENBERGER. The University of Chicago Press, 1923, pp. x+173.

This is a sketch of the life and history of a Mennonite group. The conduct of the members of this group was rigidly regulated to its minutest details. This study shows a group which has isolated itself from the outside world by setting up rigid barriers. The chapter on proverbs and superstitions is an interesting one. W. C. S.

INDUSTRIAL MANAGEMENT. By RICHARD H. LANSBURGH. John Wiley & Sons, 1923, pp. vi+488.

In this analysis of the problems of industrial management the author seeks to establish his thesis that "management is the greatest factor of the present industrial age." He sets about, therefore, to do three things: "(1) to determine the policies and principles of good management; (2) to see how they have been applied successfully; (3) and most important of all, to develop a scientific state of mind toward management problems." To these ends, careful study is made of such various phases of management technique as plant organization, standardization, job study, wage study, personnel work and operations control. The basic principle of this book is, "Business is organized for profit." Although the major problem of the analysis of relevant social attitudes and values of both management and labor has been left almost untouched the book presents an interesting and exhaustive study of the objective problems in industrial management.

F. S. L.

PSYCHOLOGY, IN THEORY AND APPLICATION. By HORATIO W. DRESSER. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1924, pp. xviii+727.

The author has given a survey of the entire field of psychology—general psychology, abnormal psychology, vocational psychology, industrial psychology, psychology of religion, social psychology. In each of these fields Dr. Dresser has been skillful in selecting the basic concepts and bringing them together in critical fashion. Good judgment is also shown in the amount of proportionate attention given to each psychological field. A comprehensive grasp of each field is shown and a worthy synthetic product is the result.

POEMS OF CHILD LABOR. National Child Labor Committee. New York, 1924, pp. 53.

This collection of poems represents a fine beginning for an anthology of child labor poetry. Social protest often finds no stronger method of presentation than through the genius of the poetic muse. Either out of one's innermost sufferings or from the keenest of sympathies for others in distress do such poems as those in this little volume come.

M. J. V.

COOPERATIVE SOCIAL RESEARCH, REPORT NO. 2. *Children in Need of Special Care*. The Women's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston, 1923, pp. x+109.

A good beginning is made in this report in the attempt to understand and treat constructively the problem of the motherless child and family. There are throughout carefully obtained and evaluated facts regarding causes of death of the mother, periods of delay and deterioration in family morale between the time of the death of the mother and reporting the family to a social agency, the delinquencies of agencies, private and public, in reporting these cases early, the failure or success of varieties of efforts to save the family unit, and analyses of strengths and weaknesses in the character of the father which can serve as a most valuable guide to the case worker making plans for the continuance or break-up of the family group. The report suggests that social workers can look with deep satisfaction on the Mothers' Aid statutes of forty-two of our states. E. B.S.

LIVING ENGLISH FOR NEW AMERICANS. By ETTIE LEE and JENNIE I. PAGE. The Macmillan Company, 1924, pp. xvii+262.

In this attractive book of eighty lessons dramatization and the action verb represent the main principle of procedure. The lessons deal with the activities that immigrants face in their daily work and life in the United States. Best of all a stimulating social spirit permeates the lessons. Remarkable success is achieved in inculcating in simple language lessons the essentials of a social service point of view toward home work, school marketing, recreation, and civic opportunities (the church alone is omitted). The illustrations are superb. To the reviewer this book seems to be in a class by itself as far as both technique and social attitude are concerned. E. S. B

PRISONS AND COMMON SENSE. By THOMAS MOTT OSBORNE. J. B. Lippincott Co., 1924, pp. 105.

The author sketches what he considers fundamental in dealing with prisoners. He shows the failures of the old system of severity, but he is strongly opposed to sentimentality. He tells the story of the Mutual Welfare League at Auburn, Sing Sing, and the Naval Prison at Portsmouth. He stresses the idea that prisons must be educational institutions not, however, devoted to mere book learning but to such activities that will assist the prisoners in becoming good citizens. W. C. S.

REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT IN INDUSTRY. By JAMES MYERS. Geo. H. Doran Co., 1924, pp. xi+249.

Mr. Myers has for his chief purpose in offering this volume the hope of drawing attention to the necessity of a new industrial relation and of throwing some light upon experiments in industrial democracy. He has admirably fulfilled this aim. With a fine sense of discrimination the author has picked out those things for discussion which have in the past pierced the smooth running of modern industrial proceedings. His long experience with modern representative government in industry has enabled him to discern the paths which make for real progress in industry. Noteworthy is his charge "Autocracy creates only two types of mind—the mind of the slave or servant,—and the mind of the rebel." This is certainly a brief but eloquent appeal for democracy. It is a book to arouse the enthusiasm of all those who see that in service to humanity lies the highest satisfaction in life.

M. J. V.

PLEASURE AND BEHAVIOR. By FREDERIC LYMAN WELLS. D. Appleton & Company, 1924, pp. xvi+274.

The author does a good piece of work in studying behavior in terms of the affective aspects of life. The relations between the feelings and activity have been underestimated by most scientific writers. The book attempts to analyze in a popular way the connections between innate urges and self-realization and success. The trend of the argument is indicated in the following conclusion: "The world's martyrs have the courage of great conviction; its heroes, of great desire."

PUBLIC HEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES. By HARRY H. MOORE. Harper & Bros., 1923, pp. xix+557.

This book succeeds in giving compactly "the more important statistical data and other facts regarding the principal aspects of the nation's health." It treats of the human and economic costs of disease, of the warfare against disease, of the exploitation of ignorance regarding disease, and of the expanding field of public health. It is popularly written and will be widely useful.

THE INTELLECTUAL WORKER AND HIS WORK. By WILLIAM MACDONALD. The Macmillan Company, 1924, pp. 351.

In the first half of this book, the author deals partly with occupational psychology and points some of the ways in which the various professions effect the attitudes of the persons engaged in them. Some of the biases, the false attitudes, the occupational egoism, as well as some of the wholesome effects of professional work upon the worker, are shown. The author, artist, dramatist, physician, minister, lawyer, engineer, teacher, civil servant—these are the main professional types which are considered. The last half of the book deals largely with the organization of all intellectual workers. This need is urged in order that intellectual work may achieve a recognition which it deserves but which is not accorded it in a world which still ranks the production of material goods above the production of the spiritual.

SOCIAL POLITICS IN THE UNITED STATES. By FRED E. HAYNES. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924, pp. xii+414.

This book deals historically with the labor movement, the utopia experiments, Marxian socialism, the single tax, the progressive movement, the Non-partisan League, the new Farmers' movement in the United States. These topics receive a chapter each; only one chapter is given to all of the following topics: the workmen's compensation, mothers' pensions, health insurance, child labor, the suffrage movement, prohibition, standards in industry, and so forth. The strength of this scholarly treatise lies in its historical method. It offers materials for sociological study but is not sociological.

THREE PROBLEM CHILDREN. Publication No. 2, Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency. New York, pp. 146.

These narratives from the case records of a child guidance clinic present some of the resources now available to those who are endeavoring to understand troubled young lives for the purpose of directing them in normal social development. Psychiatry is set forth as a new approach to the treatment of children who are delinquent, unhappy, or maladjusted. The endeavor in these cases has been to understand the factors which lie behind conduct in order that the inner causes of unhappiness might be removed.

W. C. S.

Periodical Notes

Can Sociology and Social Psychology Dispense with Instincts? The answer is negative. If we dispense with "instincts," we must put a term in their place to cover the same idea. William McDougall, *Amer. Jour. of Sociology*, May, 1924, 657-73.

The Influence of Journalism on Crime. Not only crime but divorce, as well, is alarmingly increased by the suggestive articles and illustrations in current publications. The way out is to subject the press to the same laws and authorities which govern other relations of men, for freedom of speech does not include dissemination of "alleged" truth, gossip, and vileness. Theodore Spector, *Jour. of Criminal Law and Criminology*, May, 1924, 155-158.

The Passing of the German Middle Class. In a country under terrific economic strain, only just out of the throes of a revolution, and by incessant warfare between capital and labor, the place of learning and culture cannot be large. Rapidly the edges of the middle class are crumbling off — impoverishment is eating at culture like a cancer. One great lamp in the cluster which lights mankind will have gone dead. E. A. Ross, *Amer. Jour. of Sociology*, March, 1924, 529-538.

L'atelier chez les sauvages. Among savages industry is organized in three forms: (1) individualistic, (2) domestic, (3) communistic.

Under the individualistic organization each individual gathers according to his needs and immediately consumes what he has collected: this is quite exceptional among savages.

The domestic organization is found in two forms, unisexual and mixed. Either it is made up of the persons of one sex who only consume the products in common, or else the entire group both works and consumes in common.

The communistic system is frequently a temporary arrangement, the households separating themselves for the consumption of goods, but often it is permanent, forming a sort of communistic organism. Paul Descamps, *Revue de L'Institute de Sociologie*, November, 1923, 351-78.

Sectionalism and its Avoidance. Sectionalism is being overcome by new means of communication, the national magazines, the films, radio, proportional sharing of benefits and burdens of government. E. A. Ross, *Journal of Social Forces*, May, 1924, 484-87.

The Institutional Foundation of a Scientific Social Psychology. The problem of social psychology is to study the origin and operation of cultural responses to institutional stimuli. By this method a scientific social psychology may be developed. J. R. Kantor, *Amer. Jour. of Sociology*, May, 1924, 674-87.

The Social Workers' Clients. A study of 4,000 social work clients shows the children to be the greatest sufferers and women the next, with social accidents, bad eugenics and degeneracy, and psychopathic conditions resulting from maladjustments as causal factors. Lucile Eaves, *Jour. of Social Forces*, May, 1924, 497-501.

The Urban League Movement. This movement, which originated in New York, in 1911, is based on the idea that those who live and work in the faith that men and women of the white and colored races by pooling their intelligence and enthusiasm can solve any problem in interracial relations. L. Hollingsworth Wood, *Journal of Negro History*, April, 1924, 117-126.

Public Taste. A general elevation of musical taste will be best achieved by introducing the public, and especially the younger generation, to the clean, original sources of native music, encouraging natural expression. This is hindered by the pernicious effect today of witnessing tragic scenes presented in film drama. Stanley Rowland, *The Nineteenth Century*, May, 1924, 702-712.

The Rise of Educational Sociology. The sociological phase of education, in distinction from the merely social, is one reaction of the science of sociology on educational doctrine or practice. Herbert Spencer's essay on *Education*, published in 1861, is one of the first evidences of the application of sociology to education. Beginning with 1916, books on educational sociology have been published at the rate of one a year. F. R. Clow, *Jour. of Social Forces*, March, 1924, 332-43.

Round Table Notes

ADVERTISING withdraws thousands of young men yearly from productive labor to persuade people to buy from me and not from my neighbor. Gillette, *The People's Corporation*, p. 49.

CIVILIZATION is not a stable product: it is subject to periodic convulsions, such as we have lately experienced; and one of the most serious tasks of the student of society is to determine the causes that produce these convulsions. Perry, *The Growth of Civilization*, p. 3.

NO ONE has ever made more than a slight step forward in knowledge at one time. Every important discovery or invention has usually been the work of many men, the one who gets the credit being he who added the last link to the chain. Perry, *The Growth of Civilization*, p. 34.

MONTESORRI offers as her new contribution a splendid method—free from all force or mechanical drill—of training the child's elementary powers; but the psychological error of her teaching is that method in teaching is the all-important point in early childhood. Stern, *Psychology of Early Childhood*, p. 32.

IN 1917 in the Hospital of the Department of Public Welfare of New York City and the Bellevue Hospital, 7719 patients were treated for alcoholism, or 14.2 persons for each 10,000 of the population. In 1922 the same institution treated 5907, or at the rate of 10 per 10,000. "While the city grew 7.5 per cent, the ratio of alcohol patients to population fell 30 per cent."

IN SHORT, an age that is already immersed in things to an unexampled degree is merely to prepare the way for an age still more material in its preoccupations and still more subservient to machinery. This, we are told, is progress. To a person with a proportionate view of life it might seem rather to be full-blown commercial insolence. Babbitt, *Democracy and Leadership*, p. 239.

